DEVOTED TO AGRICULTURE AND ALL ITS KINDRED ARTS AND SCIENCES.

Agriculture not only gives riches to a nation, but the only riches she can call her own.—JOHNSON.

VOL. II. SATURDAY, MAY 11, 1850. NO. 10.

S. W. COLE, EDITOR. QUINCY HALL, BOSTON. J. NOURSE, PROPRIETOR.

NATIVE AND FOREIGN FRUITS.

GENERALLY our native fruits are superior to foreign, both in vigor of tree and hardiness; and in many cases, our native fruits are equal to the foreign in quality. We have but very few foreign apples that are worth cultivating; nearly all our best standard kinds are natives.

The greater part of the foreign pears cultivated in this country are only adapted to the garden, or other sheltered locations, and the trees are generally of a dwarfish habit. They will not flourish under common orchard management and exposure. They often dwindle away under the rigor of our cold winters and hot summers. But our native pears are generally vigorous, long-lived, hardy, and productive; and many of them are first-rate fruits. Some of them, that have endured the storms of one or two hundred winters, are still standing as firm monuments of the hardiness of our native pears.

Some of our native pear-trees have borne ten or twelve barrels of fruit in one season, and a few have produced far more. We have seen a Harvard pear-tree that yielded nine barrels of fruit in one year, which was sold at $5 00 per barrel. We have an old tree, from which we gathered eleven bushels of fruit, after cutting off its top very liberally for two years, for the purpose of grafting. None of the fine varieties that have been imported, will compare in size with these venerable standards of the past and present age. Generally, in New England, we must rely mostly on our native pears, or do as we now are under the necessity of doing, after spending a great deal of time and money on pears—go without them. As this is unpleasant, we get neither profit nor pleasure for this fancy work.

We have native peaches equal in quality to the best imported kinds, and they are far more hardy for northern culture. When our horticulturists learn the importance of cultivating not only native kinds, but natives of the north, they will not complain so much of the failure of this crop.

A good share of our finest cherries and plums are natives, and the natives are forming our largest and longer-lived trees. They are becoming stately ornaments to rural scenery, while many of the foreign varieties, though frequently vigorous for a few years, are comparative dwarfs.

Nearly all our valuable strawberries are natives. Houghton's gooseberry not only far excels any foreign variety, but some cultivators consider it so much better, that they have excluded all other kinds from their grounds. We feel the want of more native small fruits, that we may have varieties adapted to our climate; and the enterprising spirit that now prevails will soon produce them.

Too much attention has been given to foreign fruits, to the neglect of our native varieties. Some horticulturists have ransacked all Europe for new fruits, while native kinds have sprung up, flourished for many years within half an hour's walk of their dwellings, yielding fruits equal, and trees far superior in hardiness, to the foreign kinds that have been imported and sold at high prices. This zeal for foreign kinds of fruit would have a good effect, if there was a corresponding attention given to our natives, that they might be brought to public notice, and duly compared with exotics. Or if new foreign fruits, of high pretensions, were introduced merely for experiment, and not for speculation, attention to the subject would be commendable. But the sale of trees at enormous prices, which on trial prove worthless, has a very discouraging effect, especially on beginners in fruit culture.

DEPTH OF COVERING SEEDS.

As to the proper depth which seeds should be covered, much depends on circumstances. Hard seeds, such as onion, carrot, beet, parsnip, &c., that vegetate slowly, should be covered deeper than turnip, cabbage, mustard seed, and other kinds that vegetate quickly. If hard seeds are sown late in the season, on dry soil, and the covering is shallow, there is danger of the earth drying down to the seed before it starts.

But besides the differences in the peculiar nature of seeds, there are other circumstances that have a great effect, and require that the same species of

seeds should be covered at different depths. Soils vary so much in texture, that in some, half an inch is a sufficient depth, while two inches are necessary in others. We have observed in our garden, that while some moist soils remain damp at the surface several days after a rain, other soils would dry down one or two inches deep in the same time. On the wet land, half an inch depth would be sufficient covering; but on the dry soil, two inches would be little enough; and then rolling or pressing the earth closely on the seed is indispensable to insure vegetation. Seeds sowed early in spring require less depth of covering than those planted late in spring or early in summer, even on the same soil; for as it is usually cool early in the season, the earth dries slowly, and if the seed is covered deeply it will not vegetate so soon, and it will be more liable to decay.

In many cases, carrot seed is sown in dry soils, the last of May, and early in June, and it fails from the drying effects of a hot sun. The better way to guard against this loss, is to soak the seed in a warm place two or three days, and then drain off the water, and let it remain a few days longer in the moist state, until it is about ready to sprout. If it be more convenient, the seed may be sown after soaking a day or two. There is no danger in soaking hard seeds several days. In sowing soaked seed in a seed-sower, spread thinly, and dry off the moisture from the surface of the seed, or apply dry sand or plaster to dry them.

We are induced to make these remarks from seeing, occasionally, arbitrary rules prescribing the depth for covering different kinds of seeds, without any regard to the important circumstances of soil, season, &c.

TO MAKE PLUM-TREES BEAR.

Mr. R. O. Stoddard, Waitsfield, Vt., inquires how he shall make his plum-trees bear. He has trees that have blossomed for ten years, but they have borne no fruit.

In many cases, plum trees which had perfected no fruit were rendered productive by putting salt around them. Salt is an excellent manure for plums, and it sometimes renders barren trees prolific.

But the failure of plums is usually owing to their being stung by the curculio, (see Vol. I. p. 137,) from a short time after blossoming until the plums are half grown, or larger. This work is done so suddenly and completely, and when the plums are so small, that many cultivators think that no fruit has set. The little beetle makes her crescent-shaped marks on the plum, lays an egg in the slight wound, the egg soon hatches, and the larva eats towards the centre of the fruit, which soon falls, and the insect disappears in the ground.

The application of salt late in fall, or early in spring, and sometimes any time before the blossoming of the trees, will frequently prevent the effects of the curculio; but it is not always sure, and some persons resort to the sure remedy of jarring the insects off on to cloths, and gathering and destroying. This is much labor. Some save their fruit from the depredations of this insect by smoking the trees.

Apply the salt to the surface, and dig it in lightly. Spread it over the ground as far as the branches of the tree extend. Apply from a pint to two or three quarts to a tree, according to its size. One or two quarts to trees of medial size, or about half a peck to a square rod of land.

We have prescribed this condiment for unproductive trees, and have seen excellent effects from its use for several years in succession. A gardener had some fine plum-trees in a piece of asparagus, but he had no fruit, though the trees were large enough to bear. To improve his asparagus, he manured it liberally with dock mud, and after that time he had fine plums; which was doubtless owing to the salt in the mud. But our readers will consider that we do not recommend salt as an infallible remedy for unproductive plum-trees, but as an agent that is often effective.

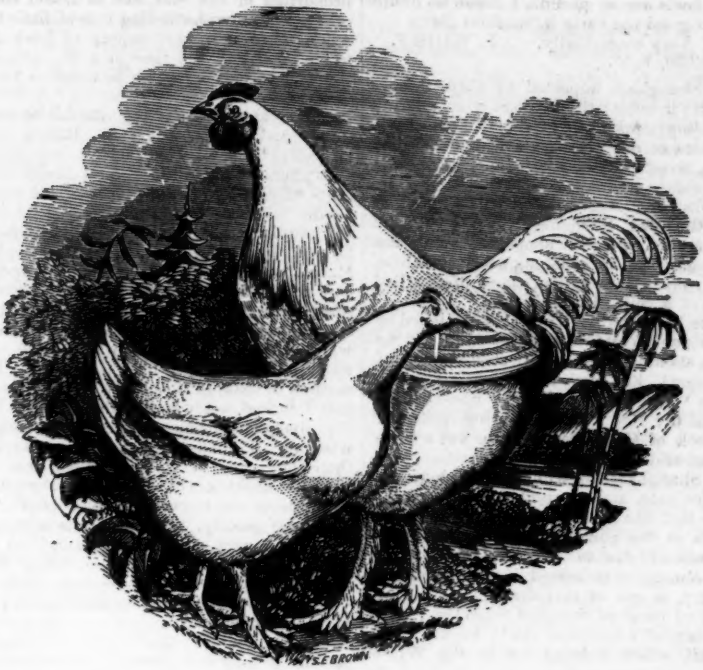
EARLY VIRGINIA AND LARGE EARLY SCARLET STRAWBERRY.

Ever since we saw a notice of the Large Early Scarlet Strawberry, in Downing's Fruit-Book, we thought it was identical with the Early Virginia, and as we could get no definite information on this subject, from numerous inquiries of horticulturists, we sent to Charles Downing, Esq., Newburg, N. Y., and procured the Large Early Scarlet for experiment. We planted them in the same lot with the Early Virginia, in 1848, and last year we had fruit from them. In flower, and the whole plant, and in time of ripening, we could perceive no difference.

This is one of the most valuable varieties of strawberries in the country, and those who claim that seedlings recently introduced will displace this, will, we think, be much disappointed. It is very early; the plants remarkably vigorous, hardy, and very productive. It has produced some of the largest crops ever raised in the country, and larger than any other variety that is so early. The fruit is very handsome, and of excellent flavor. The principal object of this article is to show the probable identity of those cultivated under the two names that we have mentioned. We shall make further experiments, and see the effect of new locations and different seasons.

It is estimated that five thousand head of cattle, chiefly cows, will cross from Canada this spring at Cape Vincent, and that not less than fifteen thousand will be sold this season to farmers in the States. The price varies from $9 to $15.

The safest and most reliable business a young man can enter, is agriculture. A good farm, well attended, is an inexhaustible store, an endless mine of wealth, from which the riches of the earth can be profusely drawn, if the owner will remember that this can only be done by the "sweat of his brow," by honest, diligent labor.



WHITE SHANGHAE FOWLS.

For the New England Farmer.

Mr. Cole: In describing these fowls, and giving the history of the importation of them, I shall be obliged to make statements which will conflict with those put forth in the work on poultry edited by Dr. J. C. Bennett, and published by Phillips, Sampson, & Co.

The White Shanghaes were first introduced into the New England States, in the year 1848, by Capt. A. S. Palmer, of Westerly, R. I. Capt. Palmer, while at Shanghae, made inquiries respecting the different kinds of poultry bred in its vicinity, and learned that the white breed was most highly prized, on account of the size; amount and quality of the eggs produced by it; the quietness of the race; the small amount of offal, compared with the other breeds; and the early age at which these fowls came to maturity.

Capt. Palmer put on board of his ship a large number of choice specimens of the White Shanghaes, as well as those of the Red Shanghaes, and on his arrival in the United States, presented his selections to the Hon. Nathan F. Dixon, of Westerly, R. I.

This importation, by Capt. Palmer, of White Shanghaes, is the only one ever made until the present year, when a merchant of this city, Daniel C. Bacon, Esq., received from Shanghae three specimens of these fowls, by the ship Vancouver, which arrived in March last. Mr. Bacon presented these fowls to Mr. Eben Wight, of Dedham, Mass., who now has them, and to whom I am indebted for the following letter containing a description of the fowls imported by Mr. Bacon.:—

S. B. Morse, Jr., Esq. Sir: Your note of yesterday, asking of me information in relation to the White Shanghaes, recently imported in the ship Vancouver, is received.

The fowls, consisting of one cock and two pullets, arrived here during the last month, March, 1850, and were in poor condition when coming from on shipboard, as all fowls suffer more or less when kept so long without coming to the earth. When the ship left Shanghae, there were two cocks and four pullets, and with great care they were enabled to save one cock and two pullets.

The fowls were selected with care, *expressly* for the owner of the ship, and no pains were spared to obtain the *purest* and *best* that could be had in that quarter; and I think they do credit to the person who selected them.

Immediately on their arrival here, the owner, a friend of mine, having no conveniences for them, handed over the entire lot to me; and I sent them at once to Dedham, where they are doing well, having throve finely since coming to the earth.

The pullets commenced laying at once, and have continued to give each their egg every day since their arrival.

Their eggs are of a fawn or pearl color, being in this respect different from the thousand and one White Shanghaes, (so called,) which I take it are *merely* a cross between our *common* white fowl and the Red Shanghae.

Whether their eggs will come darker or not as they grow older, must remain to be seen; at present the eggs are of the color of the eggs laid by Mr. Burnham's Royal Cochin Chinas, and yet his birds are entirely different from both the Red and White Shanghaes, and very superior fowls too.

Since their arrival, the feathers have come out fully on the leg, and the portrait gives a very correct likeness.

This must prove a valuable fowl, from their naturally quiet disposition, early maturity, and the great size which they can be made to attain to; and since

all Shanghae fowls are so prolific, I make no doubt these will make good the early indications given.

Very respectfully, E. WIGHT.

Boston, *April* 30, 1850.

The White Shanghaes imported by Capt. Palmer were pearl white in color; the feathers were soft and downy, resembling more those of the Bremen goose than the feathers of our ordinary domestic poultry. The tail in this breed is much shorter than in the red variety. The combs and wattles in both sexes are small, the combs not being serrated or indented, as are those of the Red Shanghae. The legs were feathered to the toes, and were short and stout, and of a pale nankeen color, approaching nearly to white. The eggs were much larger than those of the Red Shanghae, and of a yellowish flesh color.

It is much to be regretted that so good a breed of fowls as were the White Shanghaes imported by Capt. Palmer, should have been lost for want of care and attention. But such is the case. The disposition of the White Shanghae being non-combatant, and that of the Red Shanghae being quite the reverse, the stock of Mr. Dixon became but a mongrel race of Red and White Shanghaes.

The White Shanghaes, of which every huckster has a plenty for sale, and warranted pure, are the progeny of the Red Shanghae crossed on white fowls of other breeds, as the persons breeding from such White Shanghaes will find to their sorrow.

The White Shanghae described in Dr. Bennett's work on poultry, is one of this description, having the large serrated comb of the Red Shanghae, with the white plumage of some other fowl; having a full and flowing tail, which belongs not to the White Shanghae.

Notwithstanding the elaborate description therein given, setting forth the fact, that this same fowl has been selected by his owner, an *experienced* breeder, (I wonder how, when, and where he obtained his experience,) for the purpose of propagating the fine White Shanghaes imported (*from where?*) by his "friend Osborne."

I may, at some time hereafter, refer to the book of Dr. Bennett, when writing descriptions of other breeds of fowls. Yours, &c.,

S. BRADFORD MORSE, Jr.

For the New England Farmer.

MANAGEMENT OF SHEEP.

Mr. Editor: There has been but little contributed to your paper upon sheep husbandry; and knowing this subject must be one of interest to many of your readers, I send you the following sketch upon the general management of sheep.

It is not advisable to turn sheep out to grass in the spring until there is a fair bite of feed, and we should then continue to feed a little hay and grain in order to keep up their strength, and prevent the scours. It is bad economy to allow the feed in our pastures to become very high or short: in the former case, it is less sweet, tender, and palatable; in the latter, the sheep will not get a full supply of food; besides, it is injurious to the land to feed pastures very close, especially in time of a drought. A frequent change of pastures is highly desirable; this gives a greater variety of food, and thereby adds to the general health and thrift of sheep. In the latter part of the pasturing season the grass is less nutritious, and many kinds of herbage become dry, hard, and unpalatable; consequently a change of pasture is more important than early in the season; and for the same reasons, sheep should be allowed a proportional increase of territory. Hilly lands are much to be preferred for sheep pastures; yet a small proportion of low, wet land is rather desirable than otherwise, notwithstanding it is of little use to sheep when there is a good supply of fresh feed on the upland; but in the time of a drought, one acre of the former may be worth as much as ten or twenty of the latter.

While at pasture, sheep should be salted at frequent and regular intervals. It is a good plan to mix sulphur or tar with the salt, in a trough. These substances promote the general health of sheep, and keep off the fly which produces the maggot in the head.

The washing and shearing of sheep should be performed by thorough and skilful workmen. The Merino wool should be well soaked upon the sheep, and then let them out into a close yard, and in a short time they get up a heat and steam, which serves to dissolve the yolk, so that when taken in to wash, the oily matter, as well as the dirt, will be much easier separated from the fleece. The German method of soaking sheep in vats strikes me favorably, and I intend to try it. If the weather is warm and dry, sheep should be shorn in five to eight days after washing. The shearers should not work any faster than they can cut the wool close and smooth, and without hacking the skin. By shearing close we obtain more wool, and of greater length, which is an important quality. When wool is unevenly shorn, it not only makes a bad appearance, but renders the staple of the present and succeeding fleece of unequal length, and thereby lessening their value.

It is highly beneficial to both lambs and ewes, to have lambs weaned by the twentieth of August or first of September; the lambs will grow faster, especially if they are allowed a more inviting growth of feed, which should always be the case, and it gives the ewes a chance to recruit their condition, and it renders them more ardent at the approaching season for breeding. It is natural for the lambs to be quite wild when first separated from the ewes, and as a matter of convenience, and for the purpose of taming them, a few old sheep should run with them. Late in the fall, lambs should occasionally be brought into the yard and fed with a little sweet hay, roots, and grain. If this is not practised, they will eat so sparingly of these substances when first brought into winter quarters, as to lose flesh.

It is very essential that sheep should come up to the barn in good condition; they are easier wintered, and less subject to disease and mortality. But in order to keep them in this condition, it will be necessary to bring them into the yards as soon as they fail of obtaining a good supply of food in the pastures; or if allowed to run later, they should be fed with a small quantity of hay or grain. When first confined to the yard, they need extra care for one or two weeks. Their hay should be sweet, and early cut, and they should receive daily a few roots, to counteract, in a measure, the sudden change from green to dry food. Until the approach of spring, old sheep need no feed but roots once or twice a week, (which serve to keep the digestive organs in healthy tone, and promote the growth of wool,) and a good supply of dry fodder, early cut and well cured, the bulk of which should be hay composed of a good variety of the cultivated grasses. Hay should be fed at morn and night, and the coarser forage, such as straw, briers, and many kinds of herbage grown in waste places, at noon. All of these, with the exception of straw, should be cut when green, and full of leaves. Three or four weeks before the yeaning season, breeding ewes should have extra keep of grain and roots. It is preferable to have the grain fed in meal, and I think corn ground with the cob, and scalded, the best for the formation of milk; and potatoes and carrots the best of the root kind. Well cured rowen is excellent feed for lambs at the com-

mencement of winter; and in addition to the best of hay, the daily and alternate feeding of roots and wheat bran through the winter is the best keep. Fed in this way, and provided with warm yards and sheds, they will attain as much growth in the winter as in the following summer. Sheep kept for the object of wool-growing should never be made fat in the winter for the purpose of increasing the size of the fleece or carcass, as it does not pay the cost; besides, it injures the quality of the wool, and they will not thrive as well in the pasture the following summer. It is always a matter of economy to have sheep improve their condition on summer keep.

All animals manifest a fondness for a change and variety of food, and their health, growth, and condition are much improved by the gratification of this instinctive desire. Sheep manifest the greatest fondness for change and variety of any domestic animals, and derive the most benefit from it; which may probably be attributed to the peculiar composition, structure, and abundance of the outward covering, which nature does not demand of other farm stock. I am aware that many wool-growers pay little or no attention to change of food and pastures, feeding of roots, and several other matters alluded to in this article; and the consequence is, they make a losing business of wool-growing. There is no doubt in my mind that the income of seventy sheep, well managed and cared for, would be more than one hundred sheep of a like quality indifferently treated.

EBENEZER BRIDGE.

POMFRET, VT., *April*, 1850.

For the New England Farmer.

CHEMISTRY IN AGRICULTURE.

MR. COLE: Much is said of the aid chemical science is giving to the farmer. It is true that chemistry in the last half century has done wonders; but at the risk of the charge of heresy, and of being behind the age in this day of progress and light, permit me to express my doubts whether the revelations of chemistry can settle decisively what kind of food is best, or contains the greatest amount of material for the growth and production of the various animals fed and used by man. So far as I can judge from observation of what has been done, chemical analysis is of but little value, compared with the experience of practical men. The laboratory of the living stomach, with its solvents, shows different results from the baths and crucibles of the chemist. The hidden delicate operations of nature are not confined to the gauged mechanical operations in scientific experiments. The result of the analysis of Indian corn, for instance, in any number of chemical experiments, would show the same component parts; but subject the same corn to the use of different animals, and the result would be as various as the different living laboratories employed. The flesh of the chicken made by this corn, though differing in flavor, fineness, or coarseness, according to the different breeds used, would not be pork made from the same material. The same corn would produce muscle or lean meat in the Berkshire hog, and fat in the Suffolk or Newbury White, and milk and beef in the cow.

The disciples of Graham bring chemistry to their aid, to show that wheat contains more nutriment than beef. This would be found true fed to grain-eating animals, but not so fed to carnivorous animals. Wheat would fat a horse, but would hardly raise to maturity a young tiger or lion. The moose will live and thrive on browse, — sticks as large as your finger, — but would languish on the best fine hay; the calf would thrive on such hay, but would starve on sticks. Considering these facts, and recurring to my own observations, I cannot believe in the hypothesis drawn from late chemical analysis, that wheat bran, or hull, is more nutritious as food, than wheat flour. Whether pure flour, when eaten as food, is as healthful as when used unbolted, is another question, and, in my opinion, depends upon other principles than the proportion of nutriment, as disclosed by the chemist. It may be that bread of bolted flour is too concentrated and close, and does its office better mixed with its hull, in greater volume, even if the hull afford but little nutriment in itself, as chopped straw is mixed with provender for horses; or it may act mechanically, as a stimulant, by friction, and also a cathartic, as the late eccentric Dr. Ramsay supposed the rind or peeling of apples, potatoes, and other vegetables do, and insisted should be eaten with the finer parts.

Chemistry will doubtless tend to explain, in some degree, the facts disclosed by experience, and will give light and aid in pursuing experiments, in substituting one aliment for another, but, I apprehend, will not afford a very safe guide to discover the most economical and best food for each species of domestic animal, for the various purposes for which we keep them. Most men of experience, in feeding companies of laboring men, know the value of white beans as *hearty* food, which the crucibles of the chemist have not revealed. Nor has chemistry yet explained all the operations of the earth and soils on vegetation. We see the sugar maple and pine side by side, drawing their nutriment, substance, and juices from the same source; the one yields sap, the other rosin — very dissimilar substances. Experience shows the sap in different years is yielded in very unequal quantities, and quite as unequal in sweetness. On the same soil we have our corn years, our wheat years, our fruit years. Chemistry and meteorology both afford but imperfect explanations of these phenomena, and little or no aid to the farmer, to direct his operations from year to year. The practice or art of agriculture, in all its branches, is dependent on too many circumstances and contingencies to be subjected to the fixed rules of science, like mechanics. But enough of this side of the picture.

RUFUS M'INTIRE.

PARSONSFIELD, *March* 20, 1850.

For the New England Farmer.

FARMING NEAR LARGE MARKETS.

S. W. COLE, ESQ.: Would not the assertion be generally subscribed to, that little or no stock of any kind (fancy excepted) should be raised in the neighborhood of a good market for milk, fresh butter, fresh provisions of all kinds, and where there is a demand for team work?

Is it not a fact, that in all the seaports in New England, grain is cheaper than it is in the interior?

Is it not also a fact, that the price of hay and pasturage in the interior, range from one half to one third of the price on the seaboard, near great markets?

These facts, if admitted, would they not justify the following conclusions? —

That horses and oxen should be reared and trained, to the age of four or five years, where hay and pasturage are cheap: after that age, the purchaser can make them earn their living.

That select heifers two years old, that will come in in the spring, should be purchased in October and November, as they could be obtained for half what it would cost to raise them near a city market.

That full-grown wethers, (South Downs, if they can be had,) purchased from the back country in the

fall, may be stall fed for the market, in February, March, and April, and sold at remunerating prices.

That lean cattle, obtained in the spring and fed on grass, green fodder, and an allowance of grain, would come into market profitably before the grass-fed cattle would arrive from the north.

That shotes purchased in the fall, for butcher's meat in the spring, then to weigh short of two hundred pounds, and let them be replaced in the spring for the fall market, would be a profitable operation.

That poultry can be reared to the most advantage near our seaports.

That near our great markets, persons who keep teams, cows for milk, stall-fed cattle and sheep, fatten swine and poultry, enrich their farms by the consumption of grain, that exhausted the land on which it grew, to the south and west.

Query. Will fifty bushels of corn given to twenty dollars' worth of lean hogs, make more meat or manure, than if fed to twenty dollars' worth of wethers, attentively stall fed? Does not fat mutton generally sell higher than pork, exclusive of the pelt?

Will not some of your subscribers experiment upon the subject, by occasionally weighing the live animals, and give the result to the public, through your paper?

Is there no way by which June butter can be kept sweet till October? May it not be done by laying it down in small, strong white oak kegs, from twenty-five to fifty pounds each; place these kegs in a tight cask, and fill round them either salt or a strong brine, and if possible, place the cask in an ice-house?

Whoever succeeds in placing June butter, in all its *freshness of flavor*, into the Boston, Providence, and New York markets in the months of October and November, may be assured that it will readily command twenty-five cents and upwards, a pound, for any quantity.

If any of the above suggestions meet your views, and are considered worth publication, they are at your service for that purpose.

A SUBSCRIBER.

For the New England Farmer.

THE POTATO DISEASE.

Mr. Editor: I perceive by a late number of the Farmer, that "Dr. Richardson, of Maryland, flatters himself that he has discovered the cause of the potato rot." He says, "The rot is produced by the deposition of the egg, and the destruction of the pith or heart of the vine, (by consequence of the circulating capillaries,) by the larvæ of an insect. This insect is of the curculio or weevil genus."

This may be the case, and it may not. If this is really the cause of the disease in the potato, why, I would ask, is not the disease as prevalent and fatal on dry, sandy land, as on loamy, moist land? I have observed of late years, that potatoes grown on moist lands were affected earlier, and the disease was more fatal, than among those grown on dry land. I have proved this from experience on my own premises. Last year, for instance, I broke up a piece of worn-out pasture land, on the highest part of my farm, and spread on the surface, before ploughing, a light coat of winter manure, a good share of which was horse manure. I planted my potatoes about the middle of May, on this piece of ground. I also planted a small piece of ground with the same kind of potatoes, which was a deep, sandy loam, rather moist, without any manure, (although there was a light coat the year previous.) This piece was planted four or five days later, and received the same care as the other. In the fall the vines on the first planted piece decayed earlier, and still there were but little signs of disease among the potatoes; while the vines on the moist land retained their greenness much later, and on harvesting them, pretty much all the potatoes were diseased; by actual measurement, not one fifth part were fit to put into the cellar. Those on the dry ground were but little affected; not one bushel in twenty but that were sound. I do not ground my experience on this last year alone, but previous years have shown similar results; thus proving, so far as my knowledge and observation go, that Dr. Richardson's "cause" is incorrect, especially in growing potatoes on my premises. It looks evident to me, that if the disease in the potato is caused by this insect in question, all fields would be alike affected, especially when joining each other.

Many farmers lose a good share of their potatoes after having cellared them in the fall. To me it seems this might be avoided. If potatoes are perfectly sound and dry when carried into the cellar, (say the last of October) little danger need be apprehended from the rot. If potatoes are the least diseased when put into bins or barrels in the cellar, rotten potatoes sooner or later may be expected. Rot oftentimes proceeds from bruises received while digging. It needs a great deal of caution, in digging potatoes, to preserve them sound. Careless boys ought not to be allowed to dig potatoes intended for winter use.

A lady at my elbow wishes to know if there is any remedy to destroy lice on snow-ball bushes. They completely cover the bushes just before blossoming.

A. TODD.

Smithfield, R. I., *April*, 1850.

For the New England Farmer.

MAHOGANY.

Mr. Editor: Though the mahogany is a native of too warm a climate to allow of its cultivation as a timber-tree in this country, yet it is applied to so many uses, and is so well adapted for most of them, that some notice of it is required.

There are three species of mahogany: common mahogany, (*Swietenia mahogani,*) *Swietenia febrifuga,* and *Swietenia chloroxylon*; the first being a native of the West India Islands and the central parts of America, and the second and third, natives of the East Indies. They all grow to be trees of considerable magnitude, the first and second being among the largest trees known. They are all excellent timber.

Swietenia mahogani is, perhaps, the most majestic of trees; for though some rise to a greater height, this tree, like the oak and cedar, impresses the spectator with the strongest feelings of its firmness and duration. In the rich valleys among the mountains of Cuba, and those that open upon the Bay of Honduras, the mahogany expands to so giant a trunk, divides into so many massive arms, the shade of its shining green leaves, spotted with tufts of pearly flowers, over so vast an extent of surface, that it is difficult to imagine a vegetable production, combining, in such a degree, the qualities of elegance and strength, of beauty and sublimity. The precise period of its growth is not accurately known; but, as when large, it changes but little during the life of a man, the time of its arriving at maturity is probably not less than two hundred years. Some idea of its size, and also of its commercial value, may be formed from the fact, that a single log weighed nearly seven tons, was, in the first instance, sold in Trinidad de Cuba, for $1512, and resold for $2100.

Mahogany of remarkable fineness is the most costly of fancy woods. As is the case with much other timber, the finest mahogany-trees, both for size

and quality, are not in the most accessible situations; and as it is always exported in large masses, the transportation of it for any distance over land is so difficult, that the very best trees, both on the island and the main land — those that grow in the rich inland valleys — defy the means of removal possessed by the Creoles. Masses of from six to eight tons are not very easily moved in any country; and in a mountainous and rocky one, where much attention is not paid to mechanical power, to move them is impossible. In Cuba, the inhabitants have neither enterprise nor skill adequate to felling the mahogany trees, and transporting them to the shore; and thus the finest timber remains unused.

The discovery of this beautiful timber was accidental, and its introduction into notice was slow. The first mention that was made of it, is, that it was used in the repair of some ships at Cienfuegos, in 1579. Its finely variegated tints were admired, but in that age the dream of El Dorado caused matters of more value to be neglected. The mahogany-tree is found in great quantities on the low and woody lands, and even upon the rocks, in the countries on the western shores of the Caribbean Sea, about Honduras and Campeachy. It is also abundant in the Islands of Cuba and Hayti, and it used to be plentiful in Jamaica, where it was of excellent quality; but most of the larger trees have been cut down there. It was formerly abundant on the Bahamas, where it grew on the rocks to a great height, and four feet in diameter. In the earliest periods, it was much used by the Spaniards in ship-building. When first introduced by them, it was very dark and hard, and without much of that beautiful variety of color which now renders it superior to all other lumber for cabinet works; but it was more durable, and took a higher polish with less labor. At that time it was called Maderia wood, though it appears to have come from St. Domingo (Hayti) and the Bahamas; of course it was wholly unknown to the ancients.

The mahogany is a graceful tree, with many branches, that form a handsome head. The leaflets are in pairs, mostly four, and sometimes three, but very rarely five; the pair opposite, and without any odd leaflet at the point; they are smooth and shining, lance-shaped, entire at the edges, like those of the laurel, and bent back; each leaflet is about two inches and a half long, and the whole leaf is about eight inches. The flowers are small and whitish, and the seed vessel has some resemblance to that of the Barbadoes cedar; hence some botanists have given the name of *cedar* to the tree. This tree so far corresponds with the pine tribe, that the timber is best upon the coldest soils, and the most exposed situations. When it grows upon the moist soils and warm lands, it is soft, coarse, spongy, and contains sapwood, into which some worms will eat. That which is most accessible at Honduras is of this description, and therefore it is only used for coarser works, or for a ground on which to lay veneers of the choicer sort. For the latter purpose it is well adapted, as it holds glue better than deal, and when properly seasoned, is not so apt to warp, or to be eaten by insects. When it grows in favorable situations, where it has room to spread, it is of much better quality, and puts out large branches, the junctions of which with the stem furnish those beautifully curled pieces, of which the choicest veneers are made. When among rocks, and much exposed, the size is inferior, and there is not so much breadth or variety of shading, but the timber is far superior, and the color is richer. The last description is by far the strongest, and is therefore the best adapted for chairs, the legs of tables, and other purposes, in which a moderate size has to bear a considerable strain. Since the produce of Jamaica has been exhausted, there are only two kinds known: bay-wood, or that of the continent of America, and Spanish-wood, or the produce of the Islands chiefly of Cuba and Hayti. Though the bay-wood be inferior to the other, both in value and in price, it is often very beautiful, and may be obtained in logs as large as six feet square. It is, however, not nearly so compact as the other; the grain is apt to rise in polishing, and if it be not covered by a water-proof varnish, it is very easily stained. It also gives to the tool in carving, and is not well adapted for ornament. Spanish-wood cuts well, takes a fine polish, resists scratches, stains, and fractures much better, and is generally the only sort upon which much, or delicate, workmanship should be expended. The colors of mahogany do not come well without the application of oil or varnish; and if the best sort be often washed with water, or long macerated in it, they lose their beauty, and become of a dingy brown. The red is deepened by alkaline applications, especially lime-water; but strong acids destroy the colors. When the surface is covered by a colorless varnish, which displays the natural tint without altering any of them, good mahogany appears to the greatest advantage.

The *S. febrifuga*, or East India mahogany, is a very large tree; it grows in the mountainous part of Central Hindostan, rises to a great height, with a straight trunk, which, towards the upper part, throws out many branches. The head is spreading, and the leaves have some resemblance to those of the American species. The wood is of a dull red color, not so beautiful as common mahogany, but much harder, heavier, and more durable. The natives of India account it the most lasting timber that their country produces, and therefore they employ it in their sacred edifices, and upon every occasion where they wish to combine strength with durability and elegance.

The *S. chlorozylon* is chiefly found in the mountains of the Sicars, that run parallel to the Bay of Bengal, to the north-east of the mouth of the River Godovery. The tree does not attain the same size as either of the former, and the appearance of the wood is different. It is of a deep yellow, nearly of the same color as box, from which it does not differ much in durability, and could be applied to the same purposes.

BERNARD REYNOSO.

April, 1850.

For the New England Farmer.

THE WILD CHERRY FOR STOCKS—PEARS ON THE SHAD BUSH.

Mr. Cole: I would inquire whether the English cherry can be grafted or budded on the wild black cherry with success. This is a common tree with us, and it is a very thrifty, hardy tree, grows to a large size, and lives to a great age. If the English cherry can be worked on this tree with success, it would become a source of great profit to us, in this cold climate. I have for the last five years, grafted and budded the above-named tree, but without success in every case.

I have seen very thrifty, healthy-looking cherry-trees budded on the wild red, or pigeon cherry. Some of them are three years from the bud, and are eight feet high, with a very beautiful top. I took some good fruit from them last season. The wild red, or pigeon cherry, is also a very common tree with us. It grows well in poor soils, or even in gravel, where pears had been grafted; and I noticed in the N. E. Farmer, grew remarkably well on the shad bush or sugar pear, and also on the white thorn.

I will communicate one experiment to you. In the spring of 1847, one of my neighbors took from the forest some small mountain ash, or round-wood, as it is sometimes called; he set them in his front yard for ornamental trees. Soon after they were set, he saw it recommended in some agricultural paper,

to graft the pear on that stock; he concluded to try the experiment, and called on me to do the work. I cut his trees about one foot from the ground, and set in the Bartlett pear; they united, and grew remarkably well. I have this morning measured one of the grafts, and find it nine feet high; branches spread six feet; the trunk or body, five inches in circumference one foot above the stock on which it was grafted.

In trying experiments, if we do not succeed well in every case, there may be some good result from it.

Respectfully yours, M. L. HAYES.

FARMINGTON, *March*, 1850.

REMARKS. — Many experiments have been made in grafting and budding the common wild black cherry with our cultivated varieties, but we have heard of none that have succeeded. We think that no cherry that produces its fruit in strings, will be a good stock for those varieties whose fruit grows in bunches, or singly. The wild black cherry, in the texture of its wood and bark, in the quality of its fruit, and time of ripening, is widely different from our cultivated kinds.

The small, red wild cherry, often called the *pigeon* cherry, in its wood, and manner of growth, very much resembles some of our cultivated varieties. The fruit resembles our soft-fleshed, acid cherries, and ripens about the same time. This may be valuable as a stock for budding or grafting. — ED.

For the New England Farmer.

THE BLIGHT UPON GRAIN.

MR. COLE: We have frequently noticed, in agricultural papers, the various causes attributed to blast upon grain, and thus far we have never seen any decisive or conclusive evidence given; but of the many causes or reasons, the barberry seems to receive rather more than an equal share of denunciation. We think the cedar has a bad effect upon grain. Some kinds of grain were scarcely ever known to blast; for instance, the Bedford oats were once thought to be entirely free from blight, but they have been visited, and that too, it is presumed, by some fell destroyer yet unknown.

A friend of ours, who was accustomed to raising these oats annually, attributed the blight to the cedar, as there was no barberry near, but the cedars were numerous, and sometimes bordering upon his grain field. He went to work and cut them down, and afterwards purchased new seed, which he sowed and cultivated as he had previously been accustomed to do, and no blight appeared. Whether it was the cedar that caused the blight, we are unable to say; we therefore leave for the reader to judge. We think that the cedar is equally as injurious as the barberry; we therefore recommend the extirpation of both, when bordering or standing near grain fields. Neither of them is of intrinsic value.

A VOICE FROM "THE HILLS."

WOBURN, *April* 2, 1850.

For the New England Farmer.

TRANSPLANTING EVERGREENS.

MR. EDITOR: There are many different opinions in relation to the time and method most favorable for transplanting evergreens. My friend S. relates the following incident in his experience, which seems *truthful*, practical, and suggestive of good and useful results. He says, being warmed by the singing of birds, and the genial influences of spring, (as we all are, or ought to be,) into the true spirit of *tree-planting*, he went with some friends to a forest for evergreens. They were nearly supplied, and had nearly finished the taking up of a pretty large tree, when the approach of a shower drove them home. The tree remained till the next year, and was then taken up, and transplanted with others from the same location; and is now, after a lapse of four or five years, almost the only one of some fifteen or twenty, alive or worth preserving.

He says, that the roots cut off the previous spring had been partially covered with earth, and had sent out such quantities of *new* roots, feelers, &c., that its growth seemed hardly to be checked; nor was the diminution of its freshness and vigor at all apparent. Many valuable fruit and ornamental trees are sacrificed every year, for the want of care, skill, and patience, in planting. Yours truly, S.

ANDOVER, *April* 16, 1850.

For the New England Farmer.

EFFECTS OF THE WINTER ON FRUIT TREES.

FRIEND COLE: The past winter was very favorable for fruit trees in this region. Snow came on early, before the ground was much frozen, and remained over four months, effectually protecting trees and shrubs in the nursery and elsewhere. A few warm days, of late, carried the snow nearly off; and as there was but little frost in the ground, the sap soon commenced flowing, and the buds began to swell; but on the night of the 12th, we were greeted with a severe north-east snow-storm, followed by piercing, cold north-west winds. This produced a sudden contraction of the bark, and expansion of the sap, causing the bark to burst badly. In cutting scions yesterday, I noticed many trees in the nursery, which were nearly spoiled from this cause. The injury has been greater on low or moist ground; the bark cracks from three to six inches above the ground.

Respectfully, S. N. TABER.

VASSALBOROUGH, ME., *4th mo.* 17, 1850.

GRAFTING COMPOSITION.

It is rather late in the season to offer new receipts for grafting cement, but it is a suitable time to make trial of new modes of making it, preparatory to correct action another season.

Mr. E. W. Osborne, of South Weare, N. H., makes grafting composition in the following manner, and he says that it is excellent, and very conveniently worked by wetting the hands: —

1 pound best bar or brown soap,

1 do. beeswax, of good quality,

2 pounds good rosin. Rosin of a very dark or black color is not so good as the light-colored.

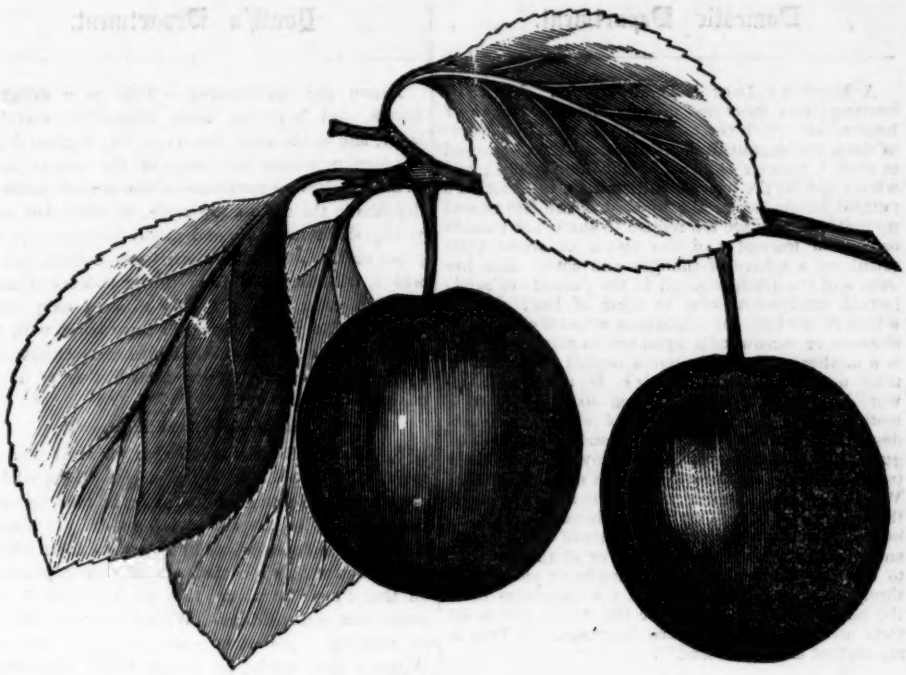
Melt all together, and work thoroughly, as shoemaker's wax.

The following composition is used by some nurserymen, and preferred to that in which there is tallow: —

1 pint linseed oil,

1 pound beeswax,

6 pounds rosin. Melt, and work thoroughly.



SMITH'S ORLEANS PLUM.

SYNONYMES. — *Cooper's Red;* by some, incorrectly, *Red Magnum Bonum,* or *Violet Perdrigon.*

This is among the most valuable plums. Though it may not hardly equal in flavor some of the most luscious kinds, yet it has a mingling of the vinous with the saccharine flavor, that to some palates is equal to the very best. But the peculiar advantages in this plum are its good size, large growth, and great production; and its generally being sure to produce a good crop, while many delicate kinds fail; and it seems to be well adapted to different climates, soils, and locations, but, like most varieties of plums, it succeeds best on a strong, moist soil.

All things considered, Smith's Orleans ranks among our most valuable plums, especially for the market. It is a native variety, raised from the seed of the old Orleans about twenty-five years ago, by a Mr. Smith, of Gowanus, Long Island.

The fruit is large, or very large; oval, or roundish-oval; a distinct suture on one side; reddish purple, covered with an azure bloom; stem rather slender, in a deep and narrow cavity; flesh yellow, rather firm, very juicy, and of a sprightly vinous flavor. Clingstone. Sept. 1 to 20. The young shoots are straight, reddish-purple, and glossy. The fruit, like that of many varieties of plums, is rather inclined to rot when it hangs very thick.

Nature, in her silent ministrations, often speaketh in tones louder than the thunder.

THE PROSPECT FOR FRUIT.

Probably there never was a more promising prospect for fruit, in New England, than there is at present. In some sections of the south and west, the fruit buds or blossoms have been injured by frost, but we trust that out of New England the prospect is generally good.

As the crops of fruit were very light last year, and the season was favorable for the production of wood, the trees made a great growth, and they indicate a most bountiful blowth. As the winter has been mild, the blossom buds have generally escaped injury from the cold, and the present cold, backward season is very propitious in retarding the blossoming of trees until late in the season, which gives them a much better chance to escape injury from spring frosts.

Another cheering consideration to the lovers of fruit, is the great increase of fruit trees, and the increased attention in the management of them. If the season should continue favorable, we shall doubtless have the largest crop of fruit ever raised in this country. Our readers will please consider that this is an even year, and that we always have a good crop of apples in even years, if the season be favorable. All who are nice observers will find, every year, a confirmation of our views on this subject, as we have expressed them at various times.

Domestic Department.

A Mother's Love. — There are few objects of contemplation more melancholy than the waste of human love which the aspect of this world presents; of deep, tender, untiring, disinterested love, bestowed in such a manner as meets no adequate return; and what must be the harvest gathered in, to a mother's faithful bosom, when she finds that she has reared up children who are too refined to share her humble cares, too learned and too clever to waste their talent on a sphere of thought and action like her own, and too much engaged in the pursuits of intellectual attainments ever to think of her! Yet to whom do we look for consolation when the blight of sickness or sorrow falls upon our earthly peace, but to a mother? And who but a mother is invited to take our afflictions or trials? If the stigma of worldly degradation falls upon us, we fly to a mother's love for that mantle of charity which is denied elsewhere. With more honored and distinguished associates we may have joy, but the bitter tears of experience are wept upon a mother's bosom. We keep for our summer friends the amusing story, the brilliant witticism, or the intellectual discourse; but we tell to a mother's ear the tale of our distress, and the history of our wrongs. For all that belongs to the weakness of humanity, a mother's affection is sorely taxed: why then should not daughters have the noble feeling to say before the world, and to let their actions speak the same language, — "This is my earliest and best friend"?

Jellies for the Sick. — *To make Panada, or Bread Jelly.* — Cut a wheaten roll or loaf into slices, toast them on both sides, and boil in a quart of water, until the whole forms a jelly, adding more water if required; then strain, and flavor with one pound of white sugar, four ounces of red wine, and one ounce of cinnamon. Very nutritious. It may also be made with broth from which the fat has been skimmed, instead of water.

Biscuit Jelly. — Take of white biscuit, crushed beneath the rolling-pin, four ounces; cold water, two quarts; soak for some hours, boil to one half, strain, evaporate to one pint, and flavor as above. Given in weakness of the stomach, dysentery, and diarrhœa.

Rice Jelly. — Take of rice three spoonfuls; boil in water, add ten sweet and five bitter almonds, and sugar to your liking; make into an emulsion, and flavor with cinnamon or orange-flower water to your taste.

Arrow-Root Jelly. — Take of arrow-root one ounce; rub to a smooth paste with a spoonful or two of cold water; then gradually add of boiling water half a pint, stirring all the while. It may be thinned with more water, if desired, and flavored with milk, wine, sugar, and spices, according to the palate of the patient.

Sago Jelly. — Soak sago in cold water from an hour to an hour and a half; strain, and boil in fresh water till it becomes transparent; then add wine, sugar, clear broth, milk, prunes, or spices to flavor. One ounce of sago will make a pint of jelly.

Tapioca Jelly. — First, soak, strain, and boil the tapioca, as directed above for sago; then flavor with lemon juice and peel, wine, prunes, raisins, or spices. One ounce of tapioca will make a pint of jelly.

Note. — The flavoring of any of the above-named jellies may be omitted or varied, with the advice of a physician. — *Am. Agriculturist.*

Youth's Department.

Labor and Amusement. — This is a delightful season, and boys can make themselves useful by labor, and at the same time enjoy the highest degree of pleasure within the range of the human mind. What wonders are performed where even the little boy deposits in the earth a few seeds, of small size, and a young shoot starts up, and finally becomes a perfect plant or tree; which no artist can imitate, and of which, with his skill from the experience of many toilsome years, he could only make a sorry counterfeit! The youth, acting in accordance with the science of nature, which is established and controlled by the Supreme Ruler, the kind Father of us all, can perform wonders:

"Tall oaks from little acorns grow."

By allowing boys a small spot for their own domain, to cultivate a variety of useful plants, such as are congenial to their taste, they will take an additional interest in the art of cultivation. It inspires them with independence, in regard to their fellow-beings, and with a consciousness of their dependence on that Power to whom they are indebted for the genial rain and sunshine. Without his aid they can do nothing, — not even start one seed into life. Without their works, no plants which they desire for a crop would spring into existence. "The sluggard will not plough by reason of the cold; therefore he shall beg in harvest, and have nothing." How exalted the station, then, of those who are co-workers with the Ruler of the universe! And while the youth is engaged in the most honorable and pleasant of all employments, — in the cultivation of the earth, — let him cultivate the mind, as well as the soil, and plant good seed in his heart, and carefully nourish and train the plants of virtue, and eradicate from that fruitful soil every weed of evil, however humble or specious its appearance.

One clock strikes when there is a change from hour to hour, but no hammer in the horologe of time peals through the universe when there is a change from one era to another.

Health Department.

Rise and Disappearance of Diseases. — Some diseases have arisen and have since disappeared. Of this description are the leprosy and the sweating sickness. The leprosy appears to have committed the most extensive ravages, and to have had hospitals erected solely for its relief. It became general throughout Europe in the twelfth century, and is supposed to have been imported by the crusaders. It has not been known in Europe since the beginning of the sixteenth century. The sweating sickness is supposed to have been introduced into England by the army which invaded it under Henry the Seventh. It prevailed from 1485 to 1551, and in some years, during one month in autumn, was equal in fatality to the plague. The diseases which have

arisen, but have not disappeared, are the small-pox, the measles, perhaps all other specific contagions, and syphilis. Though the exact period cannot be ascertained, there was a time when none of these were known here. The diseases which have prevailed with various degrees of frequency and fatality at different periods, are plague, dysentery, internal fever, typhus fever, small-pox, syphilis, scurvy, and rickets. The first plague was in 430, the last in which it was epidemic here, was in 1665. It was named in the bills of mortality as late as 1769. Internal fever, scurvy, dysentery, and rickets have declined of late years. Scarlet fever, consumption, gout, dropsy, palsy, and all nervous diseases, have increased. — *Duncan's Essays and Miscellanea.*

Mechanics' Department, Arts, &c.

Acoustic Apparatus to enable the Deaf to hear in Church. — At the Elder Street Chapel, Edinburgh, Scotland, there is erected a contrivance for deaf persons to hear, which is well worthy attention. In front of the book-board, and projecting semicircularly from it to the extent of about nine inches, is a deep, tapering cup or horn of gutta percha, the upper edges of which are in the plan of a book-board, the longest diameter of its orifice being about eighteen inches. This is covered with cloth uniform with the pulpit, the drapery of which is arranged around it, so that the eye detects nothing but an elegantly curved outline, in place of a straight and box-looking front to the pulpit. The lower end of this corniform cup tapers into a gutta percha tube of about two inches in diameter, which is carried down within the pulpit frame; and to that main trunk are attached smaller pipes, which are laid out to the required pews, where a flexible tube with an ear-piece is connected, by means of which the deaf spectator becomes a hearer, even the very deaf, who did not hear one word, or the echo of one sound, before, and is enabled to follow the speaker through his whole discourse, as plain as if he spoke into the conversational trumpet. — *Scientific American.*

Sportsmen hints on Firing

Fire Arms differently charged. — Balls which fit accurately the bore of a piece, have the greatest effect, as they do not come out so readily, but give time for the greater quantity of powder to ignite.

When the powder is rammed violently down, its effect is no greater, but somewhat less, than when barely pressed down with the ball upon it.

Gunpowder around a ball diminishes its effect, as it expands in all directions, and when it is upon the top of a ball it must in some measure act counter to its progress.

By taking a ball and putting a little powder under, and considerable before it, its effects may be almost nullified, and yet there will be considerable noise when the gun is discharged.

Mahogany Stain. — 1. Pure Socotrine aloes, one ounce; dragon's blood, one half ounce; rectified spirit, one pint; dissolve, and apply two or three coats to the surface of the wood; finish off with oil or wax tinged with alkanet.

2. Wash over the wood with strong aquafortis, and when dry apply a coat of the above varnish; polish at last.

3. Logwood, two ounces; madder, eight ounces; fustic, one ounce; water, one gallon; boil two hours, and apply it to the wood several times, boiling hot; when dry, slightly brush it over with a solution of pearlash one ounce, in water one quart; dry and polish as before.

LEACHED ASHES AS A MANURE.

The value of leached ashes on dry soils, and in dry seasons, as a manure for grain and grass lands, has been conclusively shown, in this and other countries, by carefully conducted experiments. Yet, as it seems useful and necessary to "keep before the people" such facts as are not fully understood and considered, we give some observations drawn from experiments heretofore published, for fear that this subject, in the hurry of the season, might otherwise be neglected and forgotten.

The German agriculturist, Albert, of Roszlan, gives a circumstantial account of an experiment commenced in 1827, and continued for five years. A dry, sandy soil, which had lain in grass for eight years, was dressed with leached ashes, at the rate of sixty-six bushels per acre. The sod was first carefully turned under, then the ashes hauled on and spread, and covered with a plough about two inches deep; remaining in this condition six or seven weeks it was again ploughed three inches deep, so as to bring up the ashes, and sowed to buckwheat. A portion of the field, to which no ashes were applied, was treated in the same manner, so that the difference might be noted.

The cost of the application was $6 25 per acre. The increased product of the first year was at the rate of five and a half bushels of buckwheat, with four hundred and seventy pounds of straw, estimated at $4 05. The increased product of the second year, when sown with rye, was six bushels per acre, with six hundred pounds of straw, estimated at $5 25. The increased product of the third year, when in oats, was ten and a half bushels, with five hundred and fifty pounds of straw, estimated at $3 62½. The fourth year, the increased product, when in pasturage, was estimated at $3 00 per acre. The fifth year it was again sown to rye, and the increased product was four and a half bushels, with four hundred and seventy pounds straw, estimated at $4 06 per acre. The value of the increased product is $20 00; and we have no reason to suppose their effects were exhausted when the experiments were concluded. The estimates were made by Mr. Wagner, the translator, from the prices paid at the time in this country, as also was the cost of the ashes and labor.

Unleached ashes produce a more powerful effect, and hence a less quantity is required. In the Albany Cultivator for 1842, the result of an experiment is given, on an old meadow, mowed nearly half a century — of clay soil, stocked with all kinds of grass, where strong ashes were applied, at the rate of thirty-two bushels per acre, producing an increased product of nearly one fourth of a ton, while the same quantity of air-slaked lime produced no beneficial result; and two bushels of clear, dry cow-dung increased the product only one hundred and four pounds, and the same quantity of horse manure but sixteen pounds per acre.

In the first of these experiments, four thousand four hundred and twenty-two pounds of leached ashes were applied, producing, in five years, an increase of four thousand three hundred and forty-one pounds of grain and straw, besides pasturage equivalent to at least a ton of hay. In the second, about one ton of ashes increased the product, in one year, one fourth that amount of hay; and in favorable seasons, we cannot doubt but that its effect would

continue at the same rate for four years longer. So the action of ashes must be chemical in its nature, giving a capacity to appropriate other fertilizers, which it does, perhaps, by imparting to the soil its potash, which dissolves the *silica* or flint of the soil, producing *silicate of potash*, which, according to Liebig, is required by all plants of the grass kind, in large quantities.

On wet ground, it should be borne in mind that ashes produce no effect; and in wet seasons, the benefit is much less than in dry. — *Rural New-Yorker.*

THE PEACH-TREE.

Many years ago, in viewing the fruit garden of a New England friend, I noticed the bodies of his young peach-trees were securely bandaged with straw. The straw was tall, straight, standing upon the ground around the body of the tree, being wound around with a cord. It was so thick as to prevent any insect from having access to the bark. Where the buts rested on the ground, earth was placed around them, two or three inches high, and rendered compact and firm by the pressure of the foot. Inquiring the object of this fixture, he replied, it was to prevent the grub at the roots. He said a certain kind of fly pierced the bark at the surface of the ground, or, if the ground was light, a little below the surface, and deposited a nit, which produced the grub. That from the smallest beginning it often attained a large size, and sometimes girdled the whole stock below the soil, thus wholly preventing the ascent of the sap, and causing the death of the tree. He remarked that the fly rarely injured the body at any considerable distance from the ground, its instincts leading it to the root, at or near the surface. He took me, however, to two trees, where the fly had made its perforations at the top of the straw, about three feet from the ground. The punctures were small, but distinct and visible, and on one tree were several in number. Most of them were enlarged, by cutting out with a small penknife the little deposits, but with no damage to the tree. It was not frequent, however, that the fly ascended so high. But at any rate, if the damage must be sustained, it was better to have it in plain sight, where it might be speedily remedied, than below the surface, where it might destroy the tree.

I intend to examine all my young trees this spring, cutting out the grub whenever found, and filling the wound with grafting wax, to prevent the escape of the sap, and to incase the bodies with straw, as above; persuaded that, as a precautionary measure, it will be wise and profitable. E. D.
— *Rural New-Yorker.*

THE ROLLER.

Mr. Editor: I am anxious to call the attention of your agricultural readers to this valuable implement, as, in my humble opinion, it is one no farmer should ever be without. On almost all farms there are sections where small stones exist in variable quantities; sometimes the number is so great, and the size so small, that the labor of "picking," always a tedious and irksome one, is either neglected, or but imperfectly performed; and when even all the stones are removed, the soil is not so well adapted, constitutionally, for the production of most crops, as they are where a portion of the stones are left near the surface — especially the smaller ones. By removing those of large size, say all down to the size of a man's fist, unless the number "is legion," and applying a cylindrical roller, of suitable size and weight, the residue will be pressed down even with the surface, and as effectually removed from the reach of the scythe, as though they had been picked and removed to the lines, or deposited in heaps. Experience during a course of many years has satisfied me that light, loamy soils are deteriorated to a great extent, by the removal of *all* the stones they contain, although their presence on or near the surface is a serious obstacle to successful cultivation, and one which most farmers, who study ease and efficiency, are anxious to avoid. The roller, however, is important for other purposes. Sandy soils can never be properly cultivated without its aid, as there is requisite a degree of compression which no other implement known in modern husbandry will confer. The extreme lightness and excessive porosity of such lands, while it renders them light and easy to work, prevents the retention of moisture; without a liberal and equable supply of which, no soil, however affluent in *humus*, or the elements of vegetable nutrition, can be made to exert its *maximum* force. Manure, applied to such soils, becomes, in dry season, but little better than so much wood; it cannot ferment, but dries up, and lies entirely inactive, an injury rather than a benefit to the soil. The consolidating action of the roller, therefore, is indispensably necessary to induce fermentation, and produce that compactness in the arrangements of its constituent particles, which enables the roots to assume and preserve a strong and reliable hold for the maintenance of the peculiar position nature has assigned, and the securement and appropriation of their specific food. The cost of the roller is a mere trifle, compared with the advantages resulting from its application. Stubble lands, which from the unevenness of the surface, often broken by slight inequalities, the presence of stones or turfs, which no action of the plough can effectually inhume or cover up, cannot be laid down with that degree of smoothness so desirable and important when contemplated in connection with subsequent agrestic details and operations, may, by the application of this instrument, be rendered perfectly even, and so smooth that the scythe will easily be carried sufficiently near the surface to take all the grass, without extra trouble to the mower, or injury to his scythe. B.

Bensalem, *April* 2, 1850.
— *Germantown Telegraph.*

FRUIT TREES.

As the season for setting out fruit trees has arrived, we wish to throw out a few hints, by the way of caution, against the folly of purchasing southern trees. It is a well-established fact that trees brought from the south will not succeed in New England, and the reason why they will not succeed must be obvious to every rational mind; for being raised in a more congenial clime than ours, they are forced into an over-luxuriant growth, and the consequence is, that when they are removed to a colder clime, the change will as sensibly affect them, as it would to transport an inhabitant of Africa to the northern regions of Russia. For proof of these statements, we would refer to orchards in this vicinity, which have been set thirty years, and now present no better prospect of rewarding the possessor for his trouble, than when planted. Whereas, if northern trees had been set, they would now pay the owners one hundred per cent. on the capital invested.

Thousands of southern trees are yearly brought to our cities, and sold under the assumed name of western trees; and thousands are deceived in this way. I am aware that it is hard to make many believe that these are facts; but the time is not far distant when they will be acknowledged by every one, and

those who have purchased southern trees will find to their sorrow that they have been deceived. But there is a vast difference in northern trees; some are far better worth fifty cents each than others are twenty. Be careful, then, and select good trees; but select young, thrifty, if quite small, for they are far better than old, stouter ones.

These things are facts, as far as our knowledge extends; but we should be glad to have the views of others who have had experience in this matter. — *Exeter (N. H.) News-Letter.*

THE COMPOSITION OF MILK.

Modern chemistry has thrown much light upon this very important branch of rural economy. Of all agricultural products, none is more valuable, more widely diffused, or more difficult to dispense with, than *milk*, and the *butter* and *cheese* manufactured from it. Many elaborate and careful experiments have been made by Boussingault in France, Prof. Thompson and others in England, with the view to test the quantity and quality of milk produced by animals fed upon different kinds of food. These experiments have elicited many important facts of great value to the dairy farmer; but much remains yet to be done before this subject can be fully cleared up. The economical production of milk by means of the machinery which Nature has provided, must be carefully studied, and reduced to a science. This article, which constitutes so large a proportion of human food, will then be regarded as a *legitimate manufacture*, and improvements in the *machinery*, or the animals which elaborate it, will add millions to the agricultural wealth of the country.

The component parts of milk in all animals, both herbivorous and carnivorous, is the same. It differs only in the proportion of its principal ingredients. Substances are, however, occasionally found in milk, arising from the peculiar food of the animal, which render it medicinal, or even poisonous. The following table exhibits the composition of the milk of different animals, in its ordinary state, as found by Profs. Henry and Chevallier: —

	Woman.	Cow.	Ass.	Goat.
Casein, (cheese,)..	1.52	4.48	1.82	4.08
Butter, ...	3.55	3.13	0.11	3.32
Milk sugar, ...	6.50	4.77	6.08	5.28
Saline matter,....	0.45	0.60	0.34	0.58
Water, ...	87.98	87.02	91.65	86.80
	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

From the above it will be seen that asses' milk contains much less butter and cheesey matter than that of the cow. It is probably this circumstance, and its similarity to that of the human species, which, from the most remote times, have recommended it to invalids as a light and easily digested drink.

The richness, or proportion of butter and cheese, contained in cows' milk is well known to depend upon the food of the animal, the period of gestation, and the time of her giving the milk. That taken last from the cow during the same milking usually contains much the larger proportion of butter. Its temperature is from 65° to 75°. To the naked eye it seems a pure, white liquid; but when viewed through the microscope, an infinite number of minute globules appear, which contain the oily part, or the butter. When the milk is set away in the dairy, these oily particles, being the lightest, gradually rise to the surface and form the cream. But when milk is exposed to the atmosphere, the sugar it contains slowly changes into an acid called *lactic acid*. This causes the casein, or curd, to coagulate, prevents the separation of the cream, and the milk becomes *sour*. As this acid is usually formed before all the buttery globules have risen to the surface, the curd always contains more or less butter; sometimes as much as two per cent., or one half the whole quantity contained in the milk. Hence, the longer we can keep the milk sweet, the more cream we can obtain. Now, it is impossible to prevent the change of the sugar into lactic acid; but we can in some measure counteract its effects by adding to the milk a substance that will absorb the acid as it is formed. *Carbonate of soda*, or the common soda of the shops, is the substance which experience has proved best for this purpose. Less than a teaspoonful of soda dissolved in water, and well mixed with four quarts of milk, will often keep it sweet for four or five days; thus allowing all the buttery particles to rise, and doubling the quantity of cream. In very warm weather, more than the above proportion of soda is required. — Another advantage from this process is, that it matters little what kind of vessels are used to contain the milk, whether of stone-ware, wood, or metal. In France large wooden tubs are often used, with a faucet at the bottom, though which the liquid can be drawn off from beneath the cream. In this way the labor of the dairy is made much more simple and easy.

In order that the butter may have no bad taste, the soda must be pure, and especially free from *sulphate of sodium*, (glauber salts,) which it often contains. To test its purity, dissolve a little in water, and then add sufficient vinegar to make it effervesce. Now put into this a piece of silver, as a teaspoon, for instance, and if, after remaining a short time, it retains its bright appearance, you may depend upon the soda as pure; for if it contains the least particle of *sulphur*, the silver will become tarnished. After the soda has been dissolved in water, it should be strained through a piece of linen before mixing it with the milk.

From forty-eight to seventy-two hours are required completely to separate the cream. When this has been done, the liquid loses its white color, and acquires that *bluish* appearance well known to be the characteristic of *skimmed milk*.

The souring of the cream is caused by the acid formed in that portion of the milk that adheres to the oily particles, and can be prevented, or rather retarded, by the process above described. The *carbonate of magnesia*, or twenty drops of *ammonia*, will be found to answer the same purpose as soda. F.

Washington, *Feb*,, 1850.

— *Genesee Farmer.*

THE WOOL PROSPECT.

The prospect of the wool business, in Maine, is not very flattering, even if wool should rise in price; because there have been so many flocks wholly exterminated, and all of them thinned off, that it cannot compare with what it once was, put it in the best shape you please. Still there are many who feel much interest and anxiety in the business. A writer in the Wool-Grower does not agree with us in the *causes* of this depression. We think experience says to us, that we are right in the reasons which we give, why this business is not so good with us as formerly, viz.: The operations and changes in the tariff. There is no mistake about this, and every man who ever had any experience in wool-growing, knows full well that the fate of the business is to a greater or less extent held in the hands of certain men who are found a part of every year at Washington. Let that pass now. What are the prospects of the next clip? We must refer to friend Peters, of the Wool-Grower, as the most reliable source of information on this subject. After

giving a view of the present state of the market, he observes, "We cannot see any reason to believe that the early prices this season will materially exceed those of last spring. There are several reasons why the farmers will not get any advance. One is the short crop of wheat at the west. The farmers in that region will sell their wool early — it must be sold at any prices they can obtain, because that is the only product which will command cash. Speculators and manufacturers will avail themselves of this opportunity to supply their early stock. The result will be, that if the farmers in this state and Ohio sell their wool early, it must be sold at prices which will be established by the necessities of their western brethren. But it is equally certain that wool held till late will bring prices equal to those which were obtained at the auction sales, for the manufacturer will be compelled to pay those figures. Sorted wool will bring good prices during the season, as the system is becoming more and more popular with the manufacturers."

Well, what was the price at the auction sales? This was the auction in New York, on the 13th of February. We have given the general results of this auction in a former number. The following table will give a more minute detail of prices.

The amount offered was three hundred thousand pounds, and was sold in lots, as follows: —

13,000 lbs.	common and quarter blood,	33	
20,000 "	½ blood Merino,	34	@ 35
44,000 "	¾ and full blood Merino,	37	
35,000 "	Saxony and Merino, (Pa.)	38½	
35,000 "	" " (N. Y.)	40	
25,000 "	extra fine do.	43	
30,000 "	ex. fine Saxony (Wash. Co., Pa.)	46	
15,000 "	¾ full blood Merino (Pa. and O.)	38	
15,000 "	½ blood Merino,	35½	
30,000 "	¾ Merino,	36½	
19,000 "	¾ to full blood Merino,	38½	
20,000 "	full blood Merino and Saxony,	45	
1,500 "	black fleece,	34	
8,000 "	unwashed fleece,	24½	@ 27

It was all American fleece wool.

The above is the best information we can give of the *woollen* prospect. The prospect of prices seems to be based upon the *necessities* of the western woolgrowers rather than upon a *fair valuation* of the article, as regulated by cost of production, supply, and demand. —*Maine Farmer.*

POROUS SOIL FOR POTATOES.

It has been remarked by moralists that "blessings brighten as they take their flight." The good, old-fashioned potato used to be raised so easily, and were so abundant that we never realized their worth until the potato rot came; and then the blessings began to brighten, after they had taken their flight beyond our reach. Some remarks in regard to the culture of them we think would not be amiss, even if not quite in season to apply them in the act of planting.

We have always noticed that the best crops of potatoes are raised in what may be called porous soil; for instance, new grounds that have been burnt over, and are full of half-burnt leaves and sticks, and ashes and coal, — and greenswards that have been turned over by the plough, and are not compact.

From these facts we have supposed that although the vine of the potato requires some source to obtain potash, which enters into its substance largely, yet it requires a chance where the atmosphere can have access to its tubers, and that while it is necessary that they should not be exposed to the scorching sun or drowning water, yet air is a very important element in its successful cultivation, and this it obtains in such situations as we have described above.

In looking over some of the writers who have ventured to suggest any thing on this subject, we find one quoted in the New York Farmer and Mechanic, who seems to think that the atmosphere affords the principal part of the nourishment to this crop. It is true that we do not yet, after the researches in the chemical action of the elements, know how they are always assimilated, nor what peculiar changes and affinities are effected during the growth of plants. It is not impossible that decomposition and recompositions, which are silently going on in the plant, may be such as to form substances from the ingredients of the atmosphere, and the aëriform substances and vapors with which it is filled, that we supposed must have come from the soil alone. That the potato, for instance, can derive, in some mysterious or hitherto unknown process, potash, and lime, and soda, and the other mineral matters it contains, from the atmosphere; and hence the reason why it thrives best in such a porous soil as we have mentioned.

Among the many plans devised to cultivate the potato, if you have not a piece of burnt ground, or turf, the breaking up of sward-land, and manuring with coarse, strawy manure, if you are sure of sufficient moisture, is the best.

The writer, to whom we alluded above, says that the following is the most successful plan that he has found in the cultivation of this vegetable, and that he speaks from experience.

Select a piece of hard trampled ground, the harder the better. A lot on which stock of any kind, but particularly hogs, have been kept and fed, will be found to be the best. Break it up well, thoroughly and deeply one way, no matter how cloddy; and do not harrow it any, but let the clods remain unbroken. The ground being thus broken one way, lay it off into rows the other way, or across the ploughing, two and a half or three feet apart. Open these with a plough, running it back in the same furrow, so as to open the trench as widely and deeply as possible; cut all the large seed potatoes so as to have a sufficiency of eyes on each piece. Then drop them in about six inches apart. Now fill the trench with straw or, chaff, or, if neither of these can be obtained, with leaves from the woods, or trash of some sort. This is very important to a successful cultivation of the potato, not, as is generally supposed, because it gives the potato room to grow and expand in, (though this is of some importance,) but because, as we have shown, it furnishes it with a kind of bed or nursery to grow in. We do not deny that it may receive some nutriment from the decomposing straw; but then it must be entirely different from that afforded by soil, as the straw must be entirely decomposed before it can enter into the composition of soil. The trenches thus filled may be covered with the plough, and the "middles" entirely broken by the plough to the ridges, so as to leave a furrow only between each. Two workings, a weeding, and then afterwards, at the proper time, a hilling up, each aided by the plough, about twice between each row, will generally complete the cultivation. — *Maine Farmer.*

EFFORTS TO EXTEND FLAX CULTURE IN IRELAND.

As we have repeatedly stated, the Irish linen manufacturers are making every exertion to extend and encourage the business. They find the United States a capital market for them. Hadn't we better raise our own flax, and make our own linens? The following scrap will show a little of their exertions in this business: —

Flax. Prof. J. Hodges, Belfast, Ireland, in forwarding a prize essay for the culture of flax, says, "I would recommend you to bring the subject of flax culture before the members of your important society, as at the present time it would be found well worthy of their notice. In Ireland, great efforts have been made to promote it, but the supply is not by any means equal to the demand for our own manufactures. At present, in Belfast, flaxseed of good quality can be procured with difficulty. Now, America might supply us with great advantage, and without injury to our interests, as the crop is one which cannot be cultivated beyond a certain extent. Having devoted considerable attention to the subject, I shall be happy to give you any information you may consider necessary for your direction. I send you below correct returns of the average yearly amount of flaxseed exported from Riga to Ireland, which will serve to show you our consumption: —

1843, about	54,000 barrels.
1844,	18,000
1845,	47,000
1846,	30,000
1847,	11,000
1848,	29,000
1849,	16,700."

— *Maine Farmer.*

CULTIVATING DWARF PEARS.

Every intelligent fruit-raiser is aware of the necessity of cultivating and manuring the soil well, for dwarf pear-trees. S. B. Parsons states that he has seventeen hundred trees on four acres; that he applied to this orchard, last spring, $150 worth of manure, and gathered, in the autumn, two hundred and seventy-five bushels of potatoes, thirty tons sugar-beets, and a large quantity of turnips and cabbages — paying the expenses of manure and cultivation, and giving the pear-trees a vigorous impulse.

DURABILITY OF BONE MANURE.

At the last meeting of the Probus (Eng.) Farmers' Club, a paper on the analysis of the soils of Carnwinick farm, the property and in the occupation of C. A. T. Hawkins, Esq., was read by Mr. Karkeek. Its object was to show the durability of bone manure for a period of ten years.

It appears that, in 1835, a piece of waste ground was taken from the common, and prepared for turnips, the larger part of which was manured with bone dust, at the rate of three quarters (twenty-four bushels) to the acre. (The whole of the turnip plants were destroyed by the fly; consequently, little or none of the bone dust was used in that crop.) In the two following years it was successively cropped with oats, and with the last crop, laid down to permanent pasture, in which state it has remained ever since. At the present period, the effect of the bone dust can be plainly distinguished — the land having a rich greensward, while the adjoining part, where no bone dust has been applied, has a coarse, sterile appearance. This, and a great many other experiments of the same character, made by the manager of the farm, in all of which the effect of the bone was equally visible, induced the Club to send a sample of the soil from each part of the field on which the first named experiment was made, to Mr. Hunt, now curator of the Museum of Economic Geology, to be analyzed, in order to ascertain if the bone could be detected at the present time. It should be observed that Mr. Hunt was kept altogether ignorant of the object of the Club, and that the result was perfectly satisfactory, inasmuch as he readily detected the bone in that portion of the field on which it had been applied ten years before. The following are the analyses: —

	No. 1.	No. 2
Water, evaporated by stove-drying,	14.06	14.18
Vegetable and animal matters burnt off,	12.01	12.05
Silica and silicious grit,	49.54	49.50
Oxide of iron,	7.03	7.00
Carbonate of lime,	1.05	1.06
Carbonate of magnesia,	0.25	0.35
Sulphate of lime,	1.05	1.04
Muriates,	0.54	0.54
Alumina,	7.10	6.04
Phosphate of lime,	0.10	0.75
Phosphate of magnesia,	0.00	0.05
Potash,	1.00	1.27
Humus and soluble alkalies,	6.00	6.17

Mr. Karkeek contended, from these analyses, that the experiment went to prove an important fact, which had been a disputed question among agriculturists, viz., that the principal manuring properties of bone existed in the *earthy* matters, which constitute about two thirds of bone, and *not* in the oily and glutinous parts, constituting the remaining third.

An interesting discussion ensued on the subject of the analyses, the Club being of opinion that the organic parts of bone evidently had a powerful effect as manure, but that it was next to an impossibility that any other than the earthy matter could have remained so long in the land, — the whole of the animal matter having probably been consumed by the two crops of oats — and they agreed with Mr. Karkeek, that the principal manuring properties of bone exist in the earthy phosphates. — *London Agricultural Gazette.*

The above instructive article calls forcibly to mind an incident in our chemical experience in Georgia, something over a year ago. Two parcels of minerals, having precisely the same appearance, were sent for analyses, with the implied understanding that they were fertilizers, like marl, from a common bed at different depths; when, in ruth, one was from the Cherokee country and the other from Nova Scotia. The analyses were entirely satisfactory, although we had not the remotest suspicion at the time, that the substances had been prepared to test the skill of the analyst. We have found soils so poor that 5000 grains would give but one of sulphate of lime, or gypsum. — *Genesee Farmer.*

High Price of Hay. — The prolongation of winter has greatly enhanced the price of hay in this vicinity. It has been selling, for a week past at our market, for thirteen and fourteen dollars per ton. This is a higher price for hay than we have known it to bring here for a number of years. — *Syracuse Journal.*

Paular Sheep. — A flock of one hundred Paular sheep, of the Messrs. Bingham's selection, in Vermont, were recently sold to some enterprising woolgrowers and breeders, in Lafayette, Onondaga Co., for the sum of $1400.

Cleaning Trees. Trees and vines which are kept the cleanest bear the best; like the human body, the pores of their skin become clogged with dirt, and retain gases which should escape. Trees, the bark of which has been scraped and scrubbed, become more thriving and more vigorous.

NOTICES OF PUBLICATIONS.

TRANSACTIONS OF THE AGRICULTURAL SOCIETIES IN MASSACHUSETTS, for the Year 1849; collated from the Original Returns, by Wm. B. Calhoun, Secretary of State. — This volume or number is considerably larger than the preceding volumes of this work. It contains 422 pages. This work embraces the most important doings of the Massachusetts State Agricultural Society, and those of the counties. It is well compiled and arranged, and it contains a large amount of instructive matter.

THE FARMER'S GUIDE to Scientific and Practical Agriculture, by Henry Stephens, F. R. S. E., Author of the Book of the Farm, assisted by John P. Norton, A. M., Professor of Scientific Agriculture in Yale College, New Haven. — This work will be issued in numbers, of 64 pages each. The whole will consist of about 22 numbers, embellished with 18 or 20 steel engravings, and illustrated with more than 600 wood engravings. It will be completed in about one year. Twenty-five cents per number, or $5 00 for the whole work. Leonard Scott & Co., publishers, 79 Fulton St., N. Y. The first number contains a variety of interesting matter, and gives promise that the work will be highly instructive. Mr. Stephens is one of the best and most practical agricultural writers in Europe; and Professor Norton is distinguished for his attention to agricultural science.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.

From Charles Downing, Newburg, N. Y., a nurseryman and distinguished pomologist, a variety of trees and scions, of new and promising kinds of fruit, which we trust will be a valuable acquisition to our nursery. Among this lot is the Dana pear, which originated in Western New York. This will doubtless claim priority, and, of course, a preference as to name, to the Dana pear recently originated in this vicinity, but not yet disseminated.

From Isaac Southgate, Leicester, a tree and scions of what he calls the Cloth of Gold plum; which he recommends (and we depend much on his opinion) as one of the finest varieties. It may prove identical with some valuable kind already before the public; which we intend to settle by experiment and comparison.

From N. P. Morrison, Somerville, scions and fruit of Medfield apple. Mr. M. speaks of this as a fine keeper, and as great a grower as the Baldwin, which is indicated by the size of the scion. The fruit is medial size; rather flat; yellow ground, partially covered with dull red; flesh firm, fresh, and of tolerably good quality.

From W. N. Andrews, Dover, N. H., specimen of a new seedling apple, which recently originated in that town. This fruit is large; roundish-obovate, somewhat irregular or angular; nearly covered with bright red; flesh firm, tolerably juicy, of a mild, pleasant quality, and, considering the lateness of the season, remarkably fresh.

From Capt. Silas Allen, Shrewsbury, scions of Rockport Sweeting. Capt. Allen regards this as one of the very best late, sweet apples; and so high a commendation, from so reliable a source, induces us to request him to favor us with a specimen of the fruit next fall.

From Nathan Norton, nurseryman, Greenland, N. H., trees and scions of Marston's Red Winter apple. We have had some acquaintance with this fruit. It is large, fair, handsome, and of excellent quality. In Greenland, and that region, it is cultivated by many fruit-growers, in preference to the Baldwin.

LINES TO A ROBIN THAT FLEW IN AT A WINDOW.

From snowy plains, and icy sprays,
From moonless nights, and sunless days,
Welcome, *poor bird!* I'll cherish thee;
I love thee, for thou *trustest* me.
Thou needst not dread a *captive's* doom;
No! freely flutter round my room:
Perch on my lute's remaining string,
And sweetly of the summer sing.
That note, that summer note, I know;
It wakes at once, and soothes my woe.
I see the woods, I see the stream,
I see — ah, still prolong the dream;
Still with thy song those scenes renew,
Though through my tears they reach my view,
Thus heedless of the raging blast,
Thou'lt dwell with me till winter's past;
And when the primrose tells 'tis spring,
And when the thrush begins to sing,
Soon as I hear the woodland song,
I'll set thee free, to join the throng!"

"The most extraordinary man I know of, now living," remarked a friend of ours the other day, "is Mr. ———; he never interferes with any man's business, but goes straight forward and attends to his own."

There are three companions with whom a man should always keep on good terms—his wife, his stomach, and his conscience.

The term "newspaper carriers" is now modernized, and stands thus: "Gentlemanly disseminators of early intelligence."

Our prayer and God's mercy are like two buckets in a well — while the one ascends, the other descends. — *Bishop Hopkins.*

TERMS. — THE NEW ENGLAND FARMER is published every other Saturday, making a neat and handsome volume, at the close of the year, of 416 pages, at $1 a year, or five copies for $4, payable in advance. It may be elegantly bound in muslin, embossed and gilt, at 25 cents a volume, if left at this office. As it is stereotyped, back numbers can be furnished to new subscribers.

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